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ABSTRACT

The author examines popular and research literature related to the factors and practices that influence the attitudes of classified school employees toward their work, their work environment, and the people with whom they interact. Specific topics covered are (1) factors for improving worker motivation and morale; (2) satisfaction with the work activities; (3) worker reactions to authority and supervisory activities; (4) employee attitudes toward school district policies and administrative plans including performance evaluation, salary and fringe benefit plans, and communications; and (5) employee relations with other persons, especially with their fellow members in employee organizations. (RA)

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BULLETIN

CLASSIFIED SCHOOL EMPLOYEES: FACTORS INFLUENCING THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

by

Charles W. L. Hutchison

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The Attitudes of Classified School Employees

Industry has for many years studied factors which motivate employees to improve performance resulting in increased productivity. Little research has been done in the public sector to determine what makes employees feel good about their jobs, their bosses, their employers, and their fellow workers. What techniques or management skills can be employed by school administrators to bring about healthy employee-employer relations in the classified service in school districts? Would the identification and measurement of the degree of job satisfaction of classified employees provide a useful tool to school managers in their efforts to secure increased returns on expenditures for personal service?

Mr. Charles Hutchison examines the popular and research literature as it relates to the factors and practices which are deemed to influence the attitudes of classified school employees toward their work, their work environment, and the people with whom they interact. In this Bulletin, Mr. Hutchison examines the literature under the areas of:

* motivation and morale
* the work itself
* supervision
* district policy and administration
* interpersonal relationships

--the editors

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CLASSIFIED SCHOOL EMPLOYEES: FACTORS INFLUENCING THEIR ATTITUDES TOWARD WORK

Introduction

In recent years considerable attention has been given to the psychological and human factors that influence man's attitude toward his work. As Herzberg has noted,

> work is one of the most absorbing things man can think and talk about. It fills the greater part of the working day for most of us. For the fortunate it is the source of great satisfaction; for many others it is the cause of grief.

Unfortunately, most of the research on how man feels about his work has been directed toward the private sector with increased productivity or decreased costs being the goal. More recently, however, leaders in public jurisdictions have shown an increased interest in the motivation and morale of their employees.

There is nothing more important in the operation of a school system than the development and implementation of sound and sensible personnel policies designed to meet the needs and aspirations of its employees. When these policies also serve the best interest of the schools, and through the schools, society as well, true progress will result. Ordway Tead expressed this concept when he wrote:

> Personnel administration is the utilization of the best scientific knowledge of all kinds to the end that an organization as a whole and the individuals composing it shall find that corporate purpose and individual purpose are being reconciled to the fullest possible extent, while the working together of these purposes realizes also a genuine social benefit.

There is a wealth of literature on the utilization of human resources in the many facets of social and economic endeavor. Various theories have been advanced on how the most effective results can be achieved from people within an organization by utilizing differing management techniques. The purpose of this paper is to examine the literature as it relates to factors and practices which are deemed to influence the attitudes of classified school employees toward their work, their work environment, and the people with whom they interact.

Van Zwoll expressed this point as one of twelve principles of personnel administration which constitutes the basis upon which the personnel activity is founded.

> The most important single factor in getting the best that a school employee has to offer is how he feels about his work, his associates on the job, and the school system in which he is employed. Without negating in any degree the importance of other factors, this emotional factor nevertheless stands out in bold relief. It has implications for assuring appreciation of, recognition for, and a share in planning for each employee. Everyone has the need to regard his work as worthwhile and to take pride in it if he is to work at his best.

Though the pertinent literature or research could be categorized under numerous headings, this paper deals principally with (1) motivation and morale, (2) the work itself, (3) supervision, (4) district policy and administration, and (5) interpersonal relationships.

Motivation and Morale

Theories of management and motivation may be compared to positions held on political ideology. There is no proven right or wrong. The trend for the past thirty years or so has been toward the humanistic approach. Yet, practice supporting the human relations theory has been somewhat superficial. Stahl quoted Alexander Leighton as stating, "The striking thing about this

new science of human relations is not the vast areas of what is unknown--which many are fond of emphasizing--but the degree to which what is known is not used."

Gellerman, in his award-winning book, Motivation and Productivity, provided an excellent review of motivation in terms of the work environment and how various types of supervision, management philosophies, and organization structures affect individual productivity.

Lusk provided a rather comprehensive review of the literature relating to the development of several managerial philosophies. He traced the effort of managers to treat workers as fellow human beings from the time of the famous Hawthorne studies to the more current research at the University of Michigan and elsewhere.

Despite the numerous studies on motivation relating to the measurement of morale and job attitudes in the industrial setting, little effort has been directed toward determining the attitudes and job satisfaction held by classified school employees. Oswalt made a study, using the critical incident technique, on the satisfactions and dissatisfactions of central office classified employees. He found that employees in this segment of the classified service were generally well satisfied with their work, their responsibilities, and their fellow employees. They expressed the most dissatisfaction with district policies and administration and with the quality of supervision they received.

In a study of the attitudes of classified employees toward selected factors of employment, Williams found that negative attitudes were held toward training programs and salary practices, and positive attitudes were shown toward their fellow employees and supervision. He also found that as subgroups the youngest and the oldest workers held the most positive attitudes toward the work factors studied.

The works of Maslow, Herzberg, and McGregor are interrelated in that the common thread of the humanistic approach to management runs through each. These studies, and the concepts embodied therein, furnish the core of reference for this paper.

Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow formulated one of the most prominent theories of motivation. He postulated that man has a hierarchy of needs. As he satisfies his needs at one level, he moves to successively higher levels of need. Fundamental are his physiological needs for food, air, and warmth. Next are his safety needs--the means of controlling or regulating his environment so that he is protected from it. Then come man's social needs--the need to be with others, to have friends, and to socialize. At the fourth level are the ego needs of people. These include the need for independence, self-confidence, appreciation, respect, recognition, and status. At the top of the need hierarchy are the self-actualization needs. These include man's drive to attain his full growth and potential; to have his abilities, experience, interests, training, and education utilized to the fullest. Maslow believed that though the physiological and safety needs are relatively well satisfied in our country and that ego needs are moderately satisfied, self-actualization needs are rarely satisfied.

Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor developed Theory X and Theory Y as opposing methods of control through policies and practices in managing human resources. Theory X represents the traditional concept that the average person has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if he can, and that most people must be coerced, directed, or threatened with punishment to produce adequate

effort toward the achievement of organizational objectives. Theory X further assumes that the average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition, and wants security above all.

The opposing concept, Theory Y, holds that work is as natural as play or rest; that man will exercise self-control and self-direction in attaining objectives to which he is committed, and, under proper conditions, will accept and even seek responsibility; that he is more willing and capable of exercising a higher degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems than is generally believed.

> . . . The assumptions of Theory Y point up the fact that the limits on human collaboration in the organizational setting are not limits of human nature but of management's ingenuity in discovering how to realize the potential represented by its human resources. . . . If employees are lazy, indifferent, unwilling to take responsibility, intransigent, uncreative, uncooperative, Theory Y implies that the causes lie in management's method of organization and control.

The traditional concept embodied in Theory X is that organizational requirements take precedence over the needs of individual members of the organization. The central principle derived from Theory Y is the importance of goal-integration by creating conditions under which the individual members of the organization can achieve their own goals best by directing their efforts toward the success of the organization.

Motivation-Hygiene Theory

Employees are not motivated by improved work conditions, increased salaries, or by shuffling of assignments. Neither do promises of rewards or threats of punishment produce the lasting effect of true motivation. Herzberg expressed it this way:

> If I kick my dog, he will move. And when I want him to move again, what must I do? I must kick him again. Similarly, I

> can charge a man's battery, and then recharge it, and recharge it again. But it is only when he has his own generator that we can talk about motivation. He then needs no outside stimulation. He wants to do it.

Herzberg went on to list certain positive personnel practices which have been developed as attempts to instill "motivation" in employees but have, for the most part, failed. These are:

1. Reducing time spent at work. Here the trend has been to reduce the time spent at work and to develop off-hour recreation programs under the belief that people who play together, work together. The fact is motivated people seek more hours of work, not fewer.

2. Spiraling wages. Wage increases motivate people to seek the next wage increase. Some medievalists still believe that it will take a good depression to get employees moving. If rising wages don't or won't do the job, perhaps reducing wages will.

3. Fringe benefits. The cost of fringe benefits has reached approximately 25 percent of the wage dollar and demands continue for more. People spend less time working for more money and more security than ever before, and the trend cannot be reversed. Benefits are no longer rewards; they are rights.

4. Human relations training. Over thirty years of teaching and practicing psychological approaches to handling people have resulted in many costly human relations programs but failed to produce motivation.

5. Sensitivity training. If employees really understood themselves, trusted the other man, and fully cooperated, a whole new work world would result. Since only temporary gains resulted from sensitivity training efforts, personnel managers concluded that the fault was that employees did not appreciate what was being done for them because of inadequate communications.

6. Communications. The next step was to make sure that employees understood what management was doing for them. Supervisory training on the importance of communication, house organs, briefing sessions, and other efforts to inform employees still did not produce motivation. Management concluded that it was not hearing what the employees were saying and this led to the next development.

7. Two-way communication. Through morale surveys, suggestion plans, and participation programs, management and employees were communicating and listening to each other more than ever but without much improvement in motivation.

8. Job participation. Employees were given the "big picture" in why they were doing what they were doing. The goal was to give the

> employee a _feeling_ that he was, in some way, determining what he did on the job. This was to provide a _sense_ of achievement. However, substantive achievement is the real motivator and requires a task that makes it possible.
>
> 9. _Employee counseling_. Since all previous efforts had not produced the desired motivation, managers then concluded that the employees must be sick and that they should unburden themselves by talking to someone about their problems. Psychological counseling programs do not seem to have lessened the pressure of demands to find out how to motivate employees.

The motivator-hygiene theory is contrary to previous beliefs about job satisfaction which held that the absence of a satisfaction-producing factor would cause dissatisfaction. In Herzberg's theory two separate sets of factors operate independently to produce satisfaction and dissatisfaction. The "motivators" are related to the intrinsic aspects of the job, while the "hygiene" factors are extrinsic to the work. The absence of motivators, according to the theory, does not lead to dissatisfaction, but rather fails to provide job satisfaction. On the other hand, the absence of satisfactory levels of "hygiene" factors will lead to job dissatisfaction.

> Poor working conditions, bad company policies and administration, and bad supervision will lead to job dissatisfaction. Good company policies, good administration, good supervision, and good working conditions will not lead to positive job attitudes. In opposition to this, as far as our data have gone, recognition, achievement, interesting work, responsibility, and advancement all lead to positive job attitudes. Their absence will much less frequently lead to job dissatisfaction.

Not all research supports the motivator-hygiene theory. Kaplan, _et al_. reviewed thirty-nine studies relating to the theory. Twenty-one of the studies supported the theory, while the other eighteen belied the unanimous support claimed by proponents. Different methodological approaches tended to yield disconfirming evidence in that of the eighteen studies which did not support the theory, fifteen employed different approaches

than were used by Herzberg and his associates in their original study. However, seventeen of the twenty-one confirming studies used the same or similar methodology as the original study.

The essence of the disconfirming studies indicates that not all jobs can be challenging and interesting nor do they lend themselves to enrichment. Not all workers seek and desire achievement, recognition, advancement, and independence in their work. The question of impact of social class on employee attitudes and desires is raised. The lower level needs of Maslow's hierarchy appear to be sought after more by the manual workers to the extent that other motives are excluded. Security, good salary, and fringe benefits are goals which many workers seek in order to avoid deprivation and want. They have

> never learned to seek those things which are conducive to the attainment of self-actualization, due to the necessity of preoccupation with the satisfaction of lower level needs.

Kaplan and fellow researchers concluded that

> it is apparent that there are many factors which act upon the individual and groups of workers which may significantly affect worker motivation and the response to job enrichment programs. Unfortunately, the proponents of job enrichment have at times neglected these diverse factors in their attempt to supply an answer to the problem of worker motivation which appears to be most applicable to high level and professional employees.

Just as success breeds success, each motivator is likely to produce another.

> Every success reveals a greater challenge just beyond, and the individual is drawn toward it in hopes of more exhilaration and the thrill of winning again. Being motivated by a motivator is clearly a sport for people who are psychologically well built, relatively untrammeled by fears, and fond of causing events to happen.

Unfortunately, according to Gellerman, being motivated by satisfiers is a far more common way of life.

A clear distinction should be made between motivation and manipulation. Management should recognize the difference between leading employees toward common goals and pushing them where it wants them to go. Sterner observed that manipulation implies control in place of freedom and distrust rather than trust.

Morale and Productivity

Like the speculation on which came first, the chicken or the egg, the question of whether high morale is the result of high productivity or whether greater productivity is the result of good morale is a continuing subject of debate among social scientists. Martin quoted Applewhite as stating that "satisfaction is a precursor to morale," and that "if high morale is to be present, high job satisfaction must also be present because the presence of satisfaction provides additional energy for use in undertaking the pursuit of group goals." Martin concluded that

> whether we consider morale as including satisfaction or separate the two, the overwhelming research evidence to date supports the conclusion that there is no positive correlation between morale, job satisfaction, and productivity.

Another point of view is expressed by Pajer who, after reviewing numerous studies, wrote:

> Based upon the research presented here, the present writer is assured a positive relationship exists between morale and productivity. However, rather than perpetuate controversy over the problem it would be more fruitful to investigate why some research shows no relationship, while on the other hand, there is a host of research that shows a positive relationship.

The Work Itself

To the ancient Greeks, work was a curse. Xenophon called work the painful price the gods charge for the goods of life. Many contemporary Americans

view work much the same as did the Greeks. The "quittin' time and payday" syndrome has afflicted many and "work" is very often considered an undesirable four-letter word.

Work is essential to a person's mental, physical, and social well being. Borow said,

> Work is the social act around which each of us organizes much of his daily waking experience and, hopefully, establishes a meaningful and rewarding life routine. One has but to witness the lives of men without work, or of men who lack edifying work--alienated, thwarted, and cut off from the fulfillment of the most human of sentiments, a sense of usefulness and purpose--to recognize the validity of the commonly voiced doctrine that work is, indeed, a way of life.

Anderson and Davidson wrote,

> The work a man does to earn his livelihood stamps him with mental and physical traits characteristic of the form and level of his labor, defines his circle of friends and acquaintances, affects his use of leisure, influences his political affiliations, limits his interests and the attainment of his aspirations, and tends to set the boundaries of his culture.

It is estimated that the average employed American spends about 25 percent of his time in work-connected activity. Menninger said,

> In our society work determines the way of life, particularly as it applies to the head of the household. There are obvious, conscious, psychological reasons for work--the necessity of self-preservation, the desire to raise a family and to be able to support that family, the satisfaction of pleasant relationships with associates on the job. One of the ultimate results of the maturing process is the ability to work consistently, with satisfaction to oneself and to others.

In discussing the value of public service, Stahl wrote, "The personnel function serves its highest purposes when it concentrates attention on the work to be performed by the worker."

DeWitt wrote,

> The incentives that were used for years, such as money and the things it would buy that one worked for to keep from starving, are no longer meaningful. It seems that things one had to work for are now available for free, so why work? If this is true, and people don't need to work to live, then other reasons for work must be found. From the beginning, one worked to support the outer self. Now, outer self can get along without work, so one must work to support inner self.

As Gellerman noted,

> . . . industry has concentrated entirely too much on the hours when people are not at work and entirely too little on the hours when they are. Rewards are designed to enable the employee to be well fed, clothed, and housed, and to make his leisure more secure and entertaining, to a far greater extent than they are calculated to provide him with a sense of importance or a mastery over his work. Instead of making work more inviting than it is, the emphasis has been placed on making non-work more inviting than work.

McGregor, in describing the assumptions underlying Theory X, wrote that

> most fringe benefits yield needed satisfaction only when the individual leaves the job. Yet these, along with wages, are among the major rewards provided by management for effort. It is not surprising, therefore, that for many wage earners work is perceived as a form of punishment which is the price to be paid for various kinds of satisfaction away from the job. To the extent that this is their perception, we would hardly expect them to undergo more of this punishment than is necessary.

Specialization has created some jobs that tend to become dull and routine. The principle of job enlargement, which is to increase the variety of tasks performed by an employee, is gaining in popularity as a technique for relieving monotony and making use of more abilities possessed by the worker. Schoderbek and Reif cautioned, however, that

> when speaking of job enlargement it is important to keep in mind that the major emphasis is upon enlarging the job by increasing the variety of tasks performed by the individual, not merely adding more of the same kinds of duties.

Supervision

The implementation of the concepts underlying Theory Y or the presence of the motivational factors of achievement, recognition, responsibility, and growth described by Herzberg requires enlightened supervision. The traditional concept of supervision relies on authority and specific instructions to the employee on how to do his job. The human relations concept

involves delegation of authority to perform specific assignments with a minimum of supervision. This approach is known as general supervision, as opposed to close supervision involving detailed minute-by-minute direction.

Strauss and Sayles listed elements of general supervision as those which are present in many situations where the most effective supervisor is the one who (1) delegates authority, (2) makes definite assignments and supervises by results, (3) minimizes detailed orders, (4) uses low pressure, (5) trains subordinates, (6) does different work from that done by his subordinates, and (7) spends his time on long-range rather than short-range problems.

They listed the advantages of this approach to supervision as:

1. Few superiors have the time to handle both their own job and the job of their subordinates. The close supervisor who tries to make every decision by himself frequently exhausts himself physically and mentally.

2. As superiors intrude on matters that rightfully should be handled by their subordinates, problems have a tendency to snowball.

3. A subordinate can take pride in results that are directly attributable to his own decisions. They cannot do so when someone else makes all the critical decisions.

4. Delegation helps to develop the talents and abilities of subordinates. It is hard to train people to take the risks of decision-making without putting them in a position where they have to make these decisions on their own. The exercise of authority cannot be learned through reading or listening to lectures; it can be learned only through practice.

General supervision requires that employees be given <u>definite assignments</u> in terms of <u>results expected</u>, rather than <u>specific instructions</u>, which tell them how the results are to be obtained.

General supervision does not mean that the supervisor abandons the use of authority altogether. There are times when the boss must exercise authority; there are people who must be provided firm direction, and there are situations where close supervision is required. The effective leader

is one who knows where, when, and under what conditions his leadership style must vary. Sometimes even the most effective general supervisor has to be more direct and exercise his authority in a forceful way. Pfiffner wrote,

> It seems desirable to dispel a certain tendency to believe that the human problems of management can be solved by a Pollyanna approach, that all one has to do is smile, be amiable, and dispense enormous amounts of praise. This is not true, because human beings are imperfect, and management leadership still requires a certain mixture of firmness, fortitude, objectivity, and decisiveness in dealing with the human factor.

The personality of the supervisor is another variable affecting the response of subordinates to a supervisory act. Likert wrote:

> Some supervisors, for example, are more outgoing and extroverted, others quieter and more reserved. Subordinates come to expect the supervisor to behave in a manner consistent with his personality. Supervisory acts and the ways of expressing one's self which are appropriate for one kind of supervisor may be quite inappropriate for another.

Comparison of characteristics and the manner of functioning between low-producing managers and high-producing managers is made by Likert. The low-producing managers believe in exercising control through authority. Jobs are organized, methods are prescribed, standards are set, and performance goals and budgets are established. Compliance is sought through the use of hierarchical and economic pressures. The highest-producing managers feel that the resentment created by the direct exercise of authority tends to limit its effectiveness. They strive to use all motives which tend to yield favorable attitudes on the part of subordinates. Use of participation by subordinates in setting goals, developing budgets, controlling costs, and organizing the work, tends to create favorable and cooperative attitudes where all members of the organization endeavor to strive for commonly accepted goals which they helped to establish. Likert reported that research findings show

> that those supervisors and managers whose pattern of leadership yields consistently favorable attitudes more often think of employees as

"human beings rather than just as persons to get the work done." Consistently, in study after study, the data show that treating people as "human beings" rather than as "cogs in a machine" is a variable highly related to the attitudes and motivation of the subordinate at every level in the organization.

District Policy and Administration

School managers (administrators and supervisors) are constantly "running as fast as they can just to stay in the same place," and as the Queen advised Alice in Wonderland if they want to get some place else, they must run twice as fast. The consequence, therefore, is that change comes slowly. The literature suggests that many management practices, in light of the changing economic and social fabric, are in need of review and modification. School management is not excluded. Those practices most often mentioned relate to employee performance evaluation, administration of salary and fringe benefit plans, and communications. A further look at each of these is warranted.

Performance Evaluation

There is little argument that the onerous task of judging the performance of subordinates is, for most managers, one of the most distasteful acts he is called upon to perform. In the typical school district each supervisor, once or twice each year, is asked to use a district-developed form and "rate" the performance of persons in his charge. The employee in many cases will jokingly refer to his marked evaluation form as his "report card."

Ostensibly, the performance evaluation process is the documentation of the success or shortcomings of the employee and provides him with suggestions for improving his performance. Rarely does the process achieve the motivational purpose for which it is intended. McGregor held that

> the semiannual or annual appraisal is not a particularly efficient stimulus for another reason: It provides "feedback" about behavior at a time remote from the behavior itself. People do learn and change as a result of feedback. In fact, it is the only way they learn. However, the most effective feedback occurs immediately after the behavior. The subordinate can learn a great deal from a mistake, or a particular failure in performance, provided it is analyzed while all the evidence is immediately at hand. Three or four months later, the likelihood of effective learning from that experience is small. It will be still smaller if the superior's generalized criticism relates to several incidents spread over a period of months.

The use of the formal performance evaluation procedure is an unrealistic effort by means of district policy or administrative direction to control the supervisor or manager. McGregor said it is inappropriate and that "it does not represent selective adaptation to human nature."

A leading management consultant firm has summarized the pitfalls and purpose of performance evaluation.

> A great handicap to employee evaluation has been the requirement that the system produce a "rating" to be used for administrative purposes. If a rating of 80 percent is required for a salary increase, or if 85 percent is required to qualify for promotion, it is easy to see that there will be few employees assigned to the 70s.
>
> A major deficiency of most plans has been that a single plan is made to apply to all occupations, from the most responsible administrative offices and exacting professions, down to the callings depending mainly on persistence or dexterity. The question is not how many variations of the plan there should be, but how many there must be to make each a reasonable precise instrument for gauging the distinctive characteristics of a given occupation or group of occupations.
>
> Failure to develop good evaluation plans is a failure to meet two critical needs in public employment. The supervisor who is held responsible for results needs standards and means to help him judge the work of those on whom he depends for these results. Lacking more formal means, he relies on impressions and reactions. His total judgment is heavily weighted by recent isolated incidents of good or poor work. The employee needs to know whether his supervisor is aware of his work and what he thinks about it. If the supervisor has any misconceptions, the employee is entitled to clear them up. If the supervisor sees ways for improvement, the employee is entitled to know about them. If the supervisor is satisfied with the work, the employee is entitled to share that satisfaction.

A major feature of a successful evaluation plan will be that it causes the employee and his supervisor to discuss the evaluation. A rating form in a secret file contributes nothing to better understanding, or to the encouragement of better performance.

Charles Elwell, a business executive, speaking before a group of school business administrators a few years ago, said there were four things every employee was entitled to know about his job.

1. Every employee has a right to know just what it is he is supposed to do; what his job is; what is expected of him.

2. He is entitled to be furnished the tools with which he is to accomplish the assigned tasks. These would include equipment, supplies, training, or supervision.

3. He is entitled to know the standards against which his performance will be measured; the criteria which will be used to judge his competency and his level of achievement.

4. Finally, he needs and wants to know how well he met the challenge. Did he deliver the level of performance expected of him or, if not, why not?

Since each employee is entitled to know what his job is, what criteria are to be used in judging his performance, and to what extent his performance meets the expectations of his superior, some method of appraisal or measurement is necessary. Considerable attention is currently being directed toward a relatively new concept called "Management by Objectives" which permits mutual establishment of objectives by the supervisor and the worker and permits the employee to measure his own level of performance. This process is more in keeping with Theory Y assumptions. The superior is cast in a more demanding leadership role, but the subordinate is better able to serve his ego and self-fulfillment needs through the greater responsibility of planning and appraising his contribution to the agreed-upon objectives.

Salary and Fringe Benefits

There is little argument that salary practices are one of the most common sources of irritation of school employees. Salary and fringe benefits

are motivators only in the sense that they provide short-term satisfaction.

> If they are adequate, other needs are more important; if they are considered inadequate or unfair, they tend to become first in importance to workers. Thus, a fair wage and salary policy, and consistent internal wage and salary relationships, are vital to the success of the whole personnel program.

Dissatisfaction with salary very often is a manifestation of some other job-related problem. Gray wrote,

> One reason why the rate of pay appears to be a widespread problem is that, all too frequently, it is a symptom of other troubles. Many individuals and even groups of individuals feel that they have a problem with working conditions, with the type of supervision received, or with the lack of status, to give a few specific examples. Instead of trying to solve the real problem, they develop the feeling that an increase in pay would compensate for the lack of facilities, or the poor working conditions, or the inadequate supervision. Unfortunately, however, the increased pay does not solve these problems. After only a short while, the individuals again become dissatisfied and may seek another increase in pay, instead of a correction of the basic problem.

Gellerman reported the results of research by social scientists who, under the direction of William F. Whyte, donned overalls and spent months working in a factory to find out what actually happens to workers' attitudes when incentives are introduced.

> There is no doubt that money has an important effect on the thinking and behavior of production workers; but this effect is neither as simple nor as strong as management has often assumed. As a matter of fact, monetary incentives become quickly entangled with a lot of other motives that have little or nothing to do with money, so that the ultimate effect of money itself is no easier to identify than is an egg in an omelet. Money is only one of many considerations that a worker has on his mind, and because of this he cannot think of it purely in terms of economic advantage or disadvantage. He is not simply an economic man but a social-economic man--in fact, he could probably be hyphenated still further to indicate how complex he really is. All of which means that common sense is not necessarily a reliable guide for anticipating how people in a factory will react to the chance to make more money.

Though school employees are not factory workers, they are still subject to the same psychological drives that move people to seek satisfaction of their needs. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States, in a survey

of over 600 situations in which employees had become unionized, cited five main employer errors which brought about unionization. Errors were not in the administration of pay and benefits, but were more subtle. Employers

1. gave employees only a minimum of information about the status of the company's health, its financial position, its goals, sales, and production achievements;

2. introduced changes in plant equipment, tooling, or policy without advance notice or subsequent explanation to the work force;

3. made key decisions in a vacuum of ignorance about what their employees really wanted;

4. used pressure tactics, not leadership, to secure high production and productivity; and

5. played down or pooh-poohed employee dissatisfaction in their plants.

In school districts, salary and wage administration is often divided between two or more administrative divisions. Julian recommended that responsibility for wage and salary administration be consolidated in one division, but that, regardless of where the responsibility lies, the district salary and wage plan be carefully transmitted and interpreted to all employees.

The Standard Oil Company of California, in 1957, prepared a booklet explaining the company's pay policies, what they mean, and how they are practiced. The booklet was intended primarily for supervisors but was available to all employees. In it the statement is made that

> the employee's first interest, naturally, is that his pay be high. This is not for economic reasons alone. His level of pay is also a symbol of status and a reminder of achievements, now perhaps more than ever before. This reinforces his second interest--that his pay be fair, not simply in amount but also in relation to others around him, both fellow workers and neighbors.

Two objectives of their pay plan are listed: (1) to attract and hold high-caliber employees and (2) to stimulate and reward high-level performance. But, it states,

> Pay, by itself, will not achieve these goals. Opportunities to advance, good supervisors, decent working conditions, proper matching of men with jobs, effective communication, sound benefits, good organization--these are a few of the other "musts," but good pay is a cornerstone.

Seven basic principles are given which the company believes must underlie any pay plan.

1. It should be fair.
2. It should be orderly.
3. It should be logical and consistent.
4. It must be competitive.
5. It should distinguish between the man and the job.
6. It should be flexible, not rule-bound.
7. It should be as simple as possible.

The booklet goes on to explain how each of these principles is applied through position descriptions, salary surveys, assignments, pay differentials for responsibility and training or hazardous work, and the steps taken to assure fairness.

Communications

It would be a good wager that sooner or later any problem experienced by any organization would be ascribed to poor or faulty communication. With the many publics that school districts serve, this is especially so. Since effective communication is recognized as the foundation for successful school management, it is also considered essential for sound personnel administration.

There are many facets of the communicative process involving the experience and background of the receiver, the trust held for the sender, the emotional climate, the nature of the material being transmitted, and the attitudes of the sender and receiver. Likert stated that

> Communication is a complex process involving many dimensions. One is the transmission of material from the sender to a target audience. Another is its reception and comprehension. A third is its acceptance or rejection. Frequently, the term "communication" is

> used as though all material which is transmitted is understood and accepted. For example, information placed before employees is assumed to have been "communicated" to them, that is, understood and accepted by them. This may or may not be the case.

Three aspects of communication were explained by Burns as being (1) communication at the level of facts, which may be regarded as essentially intellectual in character and which includes getting and giving of information, providing reasons and explanations, and transmitting orders and instructions; (2) the emotional component of communication which takes into account the sentiments, attitudes, and personal orientations of the receivers; and (3) the dimension of communication which is essentially behavioral in character and which involves actions, reactions, symbols, and non-verbal responses. The importance of this facet of communications, Burns said, is succinctly summarized by the admonition of Ralph Waldo Emerson: "Do not say things. What you are stands over you the while, and thunders so loudly that I cannot hear what you say to the contrary."

According to Strauss and Sayles, people hear what they expect to hear.

> What we hear or understand when someone speaks to us is largely shaped by our own experience and background. Instead of hearing what people tell us, we hear what our minds tell has been said. These may be the same things--or very different. We all tend to have preconceived ideas of what people mean; when we hear something new we tend to identify it with something that we have experienced in the past.

To illustrate the fact that people have different perceptions and interpret the same stimulus in different ways, Strauss and Sayles gave as an example the case of a supervisor who was watching a group of employees laughing. To the supervisor who believes that work must be painful in order to be productive, the laughter communicates to him that time is being wasted, and perhaps assignments are too easy; to the supervisor who believes that contented employees work harder, the laughter communicates that

he is succeeding; but to the supervisor who is personally insecure, the laughter communicates that the men are ridiculing him.

Swift and effective communication takes place in an atmosphere of good will and trust. When suspicions and doubts of sincerity are prevalent, many different interpretations of transmitted material will result. It is people who give meaning to words.

> When people feel secure, they can talk to one another easily. Where discontent is rife, so is misunderstanding, misinterpretation, rumor, and distortion. In this sense, communication is a dependent variable. Where human relationships are good, it is easy; where they are poor, it is almost impossible. Therefore, the communications area is <u>not</u> the place to start improving supervisor-subordinate relationships.

If the ultimate is desired in making goals of employees commensurate with goals of school management, then communication efforts, as a personnel management function, should attempt to tie in the success of the employee with the success of the district. Expressing this point, Cantor concluded,

> Behind these examples is one basic, obvious fact that management often tends to ignore or minimize: by and large, the employee <u>wants</u> and <u>needs</u> to identify with his or her employer. What the personnel man must strive for is a communications program that permits and encourages this identification.

Interpersonal Relationships

Since man is a social animal, he covets and seeks the companionship and approval of others. In Maslow's hierachy of needs, social need is exceeded only by the preservation of one's physical self through physiological and safety needs. The work environment provides a setting for people to satisfy the need for belonging, for acceptance, and for their recognition as worthy individuals of society. The peer relationships established at work have a significant impact on the effective functioning of the organization and the level of productivity experienced.

Likert reported results of several studies in which it was found that loyalty to work groups can influence productivity either favorably or adversely. Groups with high peer-group loyalty have greater influence on individual members to achieve the goals of the group. If these goals happen to coincide with company goals, higher productivity would result. Also groups with greater peer loyalty are more apt to have better interpersonal relations among members of the work group, a more favorable attitude toward their jobs, and less absenteeism.

> As the importance of group influences has been recognized and as more precise measurements have been obtained, there is increasing evidence which points to the power of group influences upon the functioning of organizations. In those situations where management has recognized the power of group motivational forces and has used the kinds of leadership required to develop and focus these motivational forces on achieving the organization's objectives, the performance of the organization tends to be appreciably above the average achieved by other methods of leadership and management. Members of groups which have common goals to which they are strongly committed, high peer-group loyalty, favorable attitudes between superiors and subordinates, and a high level of skill in interaction clearly can achieve far more than the same people acting as a mere assemblage.

People join groups for a variety of reasons but generally the search for identity and satisfaction is the main drive. The desire for companionship, protection, strength, and recognition can be found by many of them not only through their work groups but as members of employee organizations. The California School Employees Association has attracted approximately half of the public school district classified employees in California to its membership. The organization has been instrumental in sponsoring new legislation designed to improve working conditions and employee-employer relationships for all classified employees in the state. Many districts utilize local employee organizations as valuable communicative links to, from, and between all segments of the work force. It is quite likely that employee organizations will continue to grow in size, number, and influence.

Chaffey wrote that the relationship between the classified employee and his employer has not been one of equality and that

> this apparent imbalance has led to increased interest in and growth of employee organizations, as well as legislation defining the role of employee organizations in the public service.

Membership in employee organizations tends to amalgamate the several informal work groups of a school district and can be a positive force in promoting communication, recognition, status, and unity of purpose for its members and the school district.

Summary

Since this paper is part of a study to discover the attitudes held by classified employees toward their work, the school district, and their co-workers, the literature reviewed has been presented under five major headings. In addition to a general overview of the broad topic of motivation and morale, the factors under study as targets of employee feelings are given under specific headings of the work itself, supervision, district policy and administration, and interpersonal relationships.

Good morale and its concomitant, motivation, derive more from a state of mind than from any set of prescribed guidelines for effective administration. They result from a spirit of cooperation, respect for others, fairness, enthusiasm, pride, and sincerity. Where people really care about people, a genuine esprit de corps is likely to develop which in itself would be evidence of employee satisfaction.

Herzberg theorized that the absence of recognition, challenging and interesting work, responsibility, achievement, and the chance to grow will result in no job satisfaction. The maintenance factors of salary, status, security, fringe benefits, and company policy and administration which

managers have traditionally used to improve workers' morale are not motivators. Extrinsic rewards are not enough. The inner self (the ego) needs to be satisfied if substantial motivation is to come about.

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y make similar comparisons between what too often has been and what ought to be. Theory Y encompasses a humanistic approach which releases the human potential for greater achievement through self-direction, ingenuity, self-control, and imagination.

Work is seen as a powerful force in man's life which can lead to his satisfaction or damn him to drudgery. In most research involving Herzberg's theory, the work itself is the most prevalent motivator. Unfortunately, far too many employers regard work as something from which employees want to escape. Consequently, attention has been geared to longer vacations, recreation, fringe benefits, and other non-work factors such as salary as more inviting than work. Greater emphasis should be placed on making the work itself more of a challenge; the satisfaction gained therefrom would benefit both employer and employee.

The supervisor who is more employee-centered than job-centered will reap the benefits of higher productivity, more cooperation, and higher employee morale. General supervision as opposed to close supervision allows for the intrinsic rewards of recognition, responsibility, and achievement which give the employee a sense of being his own boss. If the employee wants to do a good job, general supervision permits him to exercise his own ingenuity in accomplishing the task. He also has the freedom to fail. A supervisor who believes in the value of a subordinate's job, fairness, a concern for the employee's welfare, and the use of mistakes as an opportunity to learn rather than for punishment will usually experience higher productivity.

Three aspects of district policy and administration--performance evaluation, administration of the salary and fringe benefit plan, and communications--contribute to most employee dissatisfactions. A review of each of these management functions has been presented.

Performance evaluation, as presently practiced in many school districts is meaningless and often counterproductive. If objectives are mutually agreed upon by the supervisor and the subordinate, then both are committed to the effort to achieve. Evaluation, therefore, becomes an assessment of how each of them contributed to the accomplishment of the task on "what" rather than "who" is responsible for lack of attainment. Performance evaluation should be a continuous process of self-appraisal rather than infrequent, periodic "back-slapping" or "fault-finding" conferences.

The compensation plan is frequently the scapegoat for deeper organizational deficiencies. Salary is not a motivator, but inadequate or inappropriate salary can lead to malcontent which breeds dissatisfaction with other aspects of the job. A sound and fair pay plan is essential; but its value is diminished if employees are denied the intrinsic rewards of responsibility, recognition, achievement, and growth in a meaningful and challenging assignment.

Effective communication is the key to successful management. The free and open exchange of information and ideas to, from, and between management and other employees will increase the chance of mutual commitment to organization goals. A mere avalanche of information transmitted to employees does not necessarily mean that communication is taking place. An atmoshpere of mutual respect between men of goodwill provides the best vehicle for effective communication. Employees need to feel that management deems it important that they are kept informed and that their concerns and ideas will be given sincere consideration.

People need to be with other people. In the work environment, camaraderie is more often generated and group loyalties are usually formed. High peer group loyalty promotes desirable interpersonal relations among members of the group, creates a more favorable attitude toward their jobs and work environment, and generally results in greater productivity. The wise manager who recognizes the power of the peer groups can channel the spirit of teamwork into greater achievement. Management needs also to recognize the impact that employee organizations have on the smooth functioning of the organization. In school districts employee organizations can be a positive force in fostering teamwork in efforts to achieve individual, group, and district goals.